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but those who have followed the other road, to North and South America, to Australia and to other of the more distant parts of the world, must be counted in hundreds of thousands. The great majority of them started as retail traders on a small scale, but many took to wholesale trade and to the manufacture of textiles and other goods. The process of taking root was harder for them than for those who went to Egypt, since it involved learning new languages and acquiring new ways of life; but they have already been assimilated to a considerable extent, and the large Syrian colonies in the United States, Brazil and the Argentine, with smaller ones in other countries, have become prosperous, loyal and respected elements in the communities in which they are living. Most of them have given up all but a sentimental attachment to their country of origin, and there seems to be no obstacle to their ultimate complete assimilation, the more so since the flow of emigrants to the countries of the New World has greatly diminished during the last two decades. It has been partly diverted to British and French West Africa, much of the internal trade of which is now in Syrian hands.

The consequences of the emigration for Syria were both good and bad. They were bad in so far as it was the more talented and enterprising of the country's youth who went abroad, during the period of their greatest energy and often for ever. On the other hand, the level of prosperity was raised by the remittances which successful emigrants sent home to their relatives, and by the savings which they brought back with them. Also, they introduced new ideas, and, what was even more important, the example of a new and in many respects attractive way of life. These ideas, this example and the bare fact that Syrians were prosperous and happy in foreign lands, deeply influenced the attitude of Syria to the West. All this was especially true of Lebanon, since it supplied so large a proportion of the emigrants.

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Western influences also came by way of education. Students began to go abroad, to seek the new learning in the schools of Europe and America; and Western schools became ever more numerous in the Near East. The greater number of them were established and maintained by foreign missionary institutions. Jesuit and other Catholic schools had existed since the

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seventeenth century, but it was only in the eighteen-thirties that conditions arose in which their numbers and influence could increase; and it was during the same decade that American Protestant schools became important. During the second half of the century a new step was taken, with the creation in 1866 of the institution which subsequently became the American University of Beirut; nine years later, in 1875, the Jesuit college which was later to become the Université de S. Joseph, was transferred to Beirut from Ghazir, where it had been established in 1843. Towards the end of the century Russian, German and other religious schools were established, the French Mission Laïque began its work, and the Ottoman Government itself started to create schools and colleges on Western lines.

The spread of Western education, the growth of commercial relations with Western countries and other factors brought into existence a class of people who knew French, English and other European languages, often as well as and sometimes better than their native Arabic. Knowledge of these languages gave them the key to a whole new world of ideas and images.

The spread of Western ideas, the rediscovery and publication of the Arab classics by Western orientalists, the introduction of the printing-press and the establishment of newspapers and periodicals led to a revival of Arabic literature. At the beginning of the nineteenth century the creative use of the classical Arabic language had almost entirely ceased. The old authors were scarcely read; such poetry and prose as were produced were imitations of archaic models; except for religious schools, which mainly confined themselves to the memorization of the Quran, no sort of literary education existed. But gradually what had been dead came to life again. Around the mission-schools in Beirut gathered a group of Syrian writers, most of them Christians, who set themselves to evolve a modern Arabic idiom and style suitable for the expression of Western ideas, and to use the instrument thus created to familiarize the Arabs with the civilization of Europe and to render them conscious of their own problems. At the same time another group was being created in Cairo by means of the schools, educational missions and translations initiated or encouraged by Muhammad Ali and his successors; similar to the Beirut group in many ways, it differed from it by a greater concern with the

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that which was established some years ago in the American University of Beirut. Its summer camps and other activities aim not so much at reforming the social life of the rural districts as at giving University students, who will in future constitute an important element in the ruling class, an awareness and understanding of the problems of rural life. Around the Jesuit University also there is growing up a movement which aims at making the educated Catholic youth of Lebanon more conscious of the social doctrine of their religion.

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In addition to the problems inherent in the process of Westernization as such, there are others which are due to the particular phase which that process has reached. One such problem is created by the existence of two main streams of Western influence, French and Anglo-Saxon. The study of the French language and its culture has been stimulated by its being one of the official languages throughout the Mandatory period, by the teaching of it in almost all schools, both private and public, and by the long-standing connexion between France and certain elements in the population. The study of the English language is encouraged by commercial connexions with the Anglo-Saxon countries, by the existence of a number of American Protestant mission schools, by the movement of emigration and by the predominance of British influence in the neighbouring Arab countries.

Here as elsewhere, the exponents of French and Anglo-Saxon forms of Western culture have not always shown so great a solidarity with one another as might be desired; and they have often been estranged from one another, not only because of the conflict of British and French political interests and rivalry between Protestant and Catholic missions in the Levant, but also because of fundamental differences in the French and Anglo-Saxon concepts of culture and education.

The differences between the two are reflected in the two Universities to which they have given rise. The Université de S. Joseph is maintained and largely staffed by Jesuits and is Catholic in spirit; the American University was originally a Protestant college, but is now officially and so far as possible in practice unsectarian. The former has for many years been subsidized, at least in some of its faculties, by the French

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177 Government, while the latter is wholly unconnected with
871 any Western government. The former concentrates, so far as the majority of its students are concerned, upon mastery of the French language; while in the latter, although English is the medium of instruction, an attempt is made to teach Arabic thoroughly. The political spirit of the former is one of attachment to France and distrust of nationalism; while the latter has become in practice, and without the deliberate intention of its authorities, the intellectual centre of Arab nationalism. The former is perhaps a greater centre of research and scholarship, and has had prominent orientalists on its staff; while the latter, although it has an impressive record of scholarly and scientific work, has tended in the Anglo-Saxon manner to exalt character above intellect, and to concentrate upon the training of citizens and public servants.

Ultimately the fact that higher education is largely in the hands of foreign institutions and is given through the medium of foreign languages, and that the two main centres of it differ so widely from one another, may prove not to be a handicap to Arab culture. At present, although it may be unavoidable and in some ways advantageous, it undoubtedly causes difficulties. There is not always sufficient common ground of understanding between the graduates of the two universities; many of them are more at home in a foreign language than in their own; and many in the attempt to master two languages and two cultures fail to master either.

212 The percentage of literacy is probably rather over 40 per cent among men and under 20 per cent among women in Lebanon; in Syria it is considerably less.

871 There are four main types of school in the country. First there are the official schools maintained by the departments of education of the Syrian and Lebanese Governments. Secondly, there are a small number of privately-owned 'national' schools, so called because they are inter-sectarian and do not give religious instruction. Thirdly, there are schools maintained by the religious communities indigenous to the country, sectarian in control and in the content of their instruction. They are the most numerous of all; and the majority of them are maintained by the Christian communities. Finally, there are schools controlled and subsidized by foreign organ-

Grade of Education	Institutions or Courses				Scholars			
	Lebanon	Jebel Druze	Latakia	Rest of Syria	Lebanon	Jebel Druze	Latakia	Rest of Syria
Elementary education	1,867	90	194	899	131,512	5,534	15,581	101,056
Secondary and technical education and teachers' training courses ..	104	—	6	42	9,805	—	643	7,398
Higher education ..	28	—	—	5	1,228	—	—	356

(In addition, there were some hundreds of students studying abroad, in Egypt, in France and other European countries and in the United States.)[1]

izations. Practically all of them, with the exception of those belonging to the French 'Mission Laïque' and the 'Alliance Israélite', are maintained by Christian missionary societies. The majority of them are controlled by French Catholics of various religious orders; next in importance are those maintained by American Protestant missions. There are also British and other foreign schools. These foreign institutions are of particular importance because they include the two main centres of higher learning in the country, the two Universities in Beirut.

In 1938 the first type of school accounted for 31 per cent of the total number of scholars; the second and third between them for 49 per cent; and the fourth for 20 per cent. In

[1] For detailed educational statistics, see Ministère des Affaires Etrangères, *Rapport, 1938*, pp. 2114-15.

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Syria the proportion of official to unofficial schools was larger, 871
and in Lebanon it was smaller, than these figures indicate.

This diversity of schools may be a disadvantage in so far as it makes more difficult the creation of a common intellectual ground for the nation as a whole. There are other serious problems too which perplex the Syrian educationalist: the problem of making modern Arabic an adequate language for expressing modern scientific concepts, and of teaching it thoroughly while at the same time teaching European languages to a degree sufficient for professional and other purposes; the problem of widespread peasant illiteracy; and the problem of redirecting the schools to the production of farmers and technicians rather than of superfluous Government officials and lawyers.

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social and economic characteristics. For example, the Christians accounted in 1938 for about 32 per cent of the total school population, and for an even larger proportion of pupils in the secondary schools. It is important to notice that 32 per cent of the Christian students attended schools controlled mainly by foreign Christian missions, 61 per cent attended private schools mostly maintained by religious communities, and only 7 per cent attended official schools.[1] Since the education given in the first two types of school is sectarian, Christians are receiving a different kind of education from Moslems, a far larger proportion of whom attend official institutions.

Educational differences are reinforced by social ones. The Christians still form a social unit, or rather a series of interconnected units, of which the relations with the Moslem community are peaceful and correct but not in normal circumstances cordial. This is especially true of the older people brought up under the Ottoman régime. The introduction of freer social customs from the West, the spread of education and the growth of the idea of nationalism are helping to make the young less conscious than their elders of their confessional loyalties, and may in the end succeed in breaking down the barriers between the sects and religions. Economically, also, the Christians tend to constitute a more predominantly urban community than the Moslems, with all the differences which that involves, but there is a Christian peasantry in certain parts of the country, similar in many ways to the Moslem peasantry.

In spite of incidents like those of 1860, on the whole the history of Syria has not been one of religious persecution on a large scale, and the Christians have enjoyed long periods of toleration, although not of equality with the Moslems. Such toleration has existed partly because of the long residence of Christians in the country, partly because they were not numerous enough to constitute a serious threat to Moslem supremacy, and partly because clergy and laity alike were for the most part Arabic in language and culture.

On the whole the growth of the nationalist movement has not had unfavourable consequences for the Christians. Individual Christians have played an important part in the movement in Syria as elsewhere. Nor is it merely isolated

[1] Ministère des Affaires Etrangères, *Rapport, 1938*, p. 91.

some recognized 'foreign protection' as a gift too dangerous to be accepted.

4

Sympathy for France depended not only upon her special links with certain elements in the population, but also upon the hold of French culture over the educated classes. Most educated people of whatever religion speak French; many know it as well as they know Arabic, and there are some, mainly among the Catholics, for whom it has replaced Arabic as their native language. French books are widely read, French social customs copied, and there are many who have travelled or studied in France and have a profound affection for the country, its people and its way of life.

It is the Catholic missions, working through schools and other institutions, which have played the largest part in winning Syria and Lebanon for French civilization. The mission-schools and colleges and the Université de S. Joseph in Beirut have always concentrated on imparting to their students a mastery of the French language, even if that should involve neglect of the teaching of Arabic. The majority of those who possess any understanding of European culture have been trained by the Jesuits, the Franciscans or other missionaries; and so long as the Catholic schools continue to provide the best intellectual education which the country can offer, there is no need to fear for the position of French culture. The social work carried out by the missions must also be mentioned; they have borne on their shoulders a great part of the work of alleviating social conditions, and have deserved the gratitude of those who care for social justice. Thus all French Governments, clerical or anti-clerical, regarded it as essential to maintain for the missions their right of unrestricted activity.

Long before the beginning of the French occupation, the Governments of France, seeing more clearly than some others the political significance of cultural ties, set themselves to preserve and extend the predominance of French civilization. The institution of the Mandate gave greater freedom for their efforts. In some ways the position of French culture was improved in the years between the two wars. French was one of the official languages and knowledge of it was an indispensable qualification for holding most of the higher

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of them indeed were better treated than the bulk of the population.) Special regard was paid to their needs and traditions, and opportunities were given for the development of their self-consciousness and self-respect. The effects of generations of inferiority cannot be wholly wiped out in the course of twenty years, but in those years Syria and Lebanon made a certain advance towards individual equality as the democratic countries of the West understand it.

Among the most urgent of the country's social problems is that of the archaic system of land-tenure. No direct assault, it is true, was made on the position of the great semi-feudal landowners. But the first step towards reform was taken by the establishment of a modern system of land-registration and the initiation of a land survey. Also the number of small freeholders was increased by the sale of public domain and the encouragement of the permanent partition of land held communally on the 'musha'' system.[1] In addition something was done to help foreign trade by the extension of harbour and other facilities.

A State system of schools was constructed almost from nothing; it is still very imperfect and not yet able to supply so good an education as is given by the best of the private schools, but at least it includes every grade of school, from primary up to the Syrian University in Damascus, an official institution set up in the early years of French Mandatory rule with the object of providing higher education in Arabic.

The foundations which have been laid are solid, but there is still much to be done before Syria and Lebanon possess even the framework of a modern society. Thus expenditure on public works and social services is still very small; the medical services are inadequate. No adequate census has been taken, although there has been a very elaborate and complete one in the neighbouring territory of Palestine. Labour legislation scarcely exists. Most serious gap of all, only inadequate measures to improve agricultural conditions have so far been adopted. Little provision has been made for agricultural education. Although excellent plans for irrigation have been drawn up, few of them were put into effect until the Allied occupation of 1941. The authorities had done little to provide facilities for agricultural credit, and nothing to encourage the formation of co-operative societies.

[1] See Chapter V.

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CHAPTER 7

EDUCATION, PUBLIC HEALTH AND HOUSING

The amount of resources which should be devoted in any development program to education, health, housing and related community services and facilities will always be a matter of controversy. Expenditures in these fields do not necessarily bear a direct or fixed relationship to outlays on agriculture, industry, transport and communications, and power. Their actual or proposed magnitude is largely a reflection of judgment and social philosophy. It is generally conceded, however, that better education, health and housing are not only in themselves objectives of development, but are also important means, however indirect, of raising production and standards of living. It is a truism that an expansion and improvement of educational opportunities is indispensable to economic progress as well as to the development of stable and free political institutions. Similarly, a healthy and vigorous population is better equipped to deal with the task of increasing production. At the same time, the cost of expanding education, health and other social services can be borne only if the production base of the economy is steadily broadened. Thus a reduction in mortality rates may create problems unless productive resources can be developed at a pace sufficient to support a more rapidly growing population, and substantial improvements in housing can be realized only if people can earn enough to afford them.

1 EDUCATION

Syria can view with pride the rapid expansion of education which has taken place during the period of independence since the war. From 1945-46 to 1952-53 the number of children attending primary schools more than doubled and the number of pupils in intermediate and secondary schools almost quadrupled. The proportion of literates in the population—probably around 40%—compares favorably with that of other Arabic countries as well as that in Asia generally, and with the existing school attendance

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871 literacy may be expected to improve significantly within the next generation.

There are, however, certain deficiencies in the educational system on which any future program must focus. More attention should be paid to the quality of education and particularly to improving the curriculum and methods of instruction. Better and more extensive facilities for vocational education ought to be provided, and a program of fundamental education for adults should be initiated.

Primary, Intermediate and Secondary Education[31]

The lack of data on the age composition of the population makes it impossible to estimate accurately the proportion of school-age children who actually go to school. One may hazard the guess that a little less than 60% of the children attend primary schools and probably about 10% go to intermediate and secondary schools. While perhaps 80% of the boys go to primary schools, the proportion of girls in such schools is still only about 30%, even though the prejudice against education of girls is being gradually overcome.

It is unlikely that school attendance will continue to increase as quickly as in the past. Prevailing low standards of living will undoubtedly keep many children out of school; economic pressure is probably responsible for the fact that perhaps 30% to 40% of children drop out of primary school before they finish. It will also be difficult to increase school attendance in areas where the population is rather sparse and scattered. Thus school attendance appears to be poorest in the rather thinly populated province of Jezireh.

In projecting expenditures on education the mission has accordingly adopted the assumption that the number of children attending primary, intermediate and secondary schools will increase at an average annual rate of 6% over the next six years. Initially the rate of increase may be higher than 6%, but toward the end of the period it may be expected to be lower. This compares with an average annual rate of 12% from 1945-46 to 1952-53, of 14% from 1950-51 to 1951-52, and of 6% from 1951-52 to 1952-53. On the basis of our assumption, total school attendance would rise from about 399,000 in 1955-56 to approximately 536,000 in 1960-61; and, if the

[31] See Annex I, p. 456 *et seq.*

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proportion of children attending private schools remains the same, public school attendance would increase from 307,000 to 413,000.

The rapid expansion of educational facilities has quite rightly received first priority in the past. In the future, however, further growth in school attendance will be somewhat less important than the task of improving the quality of education and adapting it to the country's needs.

In general the content of education in any developing society must be such as to equip people to cope more effectively with the practical, everyday problems of modern life. These relate not only to the task of earning a better living but also to the need for relating the curriculum of the school more closely to the activities of the community, and for improving its living conditions. According to the testimony of many Syrians there is an urgent need to give education a more practical content. The existing curriculum is too academic and general in character. Methods of teaching must be improved and more emphasis given to the sciences, economics and civics. Pupils must be given more knowledge and understanding about the economic, social and political problems of their environment. Without making education exclusively vocational, it can be given some vocational bias. In rural schools, for example, there can be more stress on agriculture, animal husbandry, sanitation and hygiene. In all schools—primary, intermediate and secondary—more attention might well be devoted to creative manual work, if only to inculcate a greater respect for manual labor. A legal training is still generally considered essential for government service, even though the operations of modern government demand much more technical and economic knowledge.

Current methods of instruction do not appear to stimulate the intellect sufficiently; the principal aim is evidently to impart enough knowledge to enable the student to pass examinations for school certificates or diplomas. There is an excessive emphasis on memorizing. Teaching is rather authoritarian in character: the teacher lectures, and the student is expected to accept what he is taught without challenge or discussion. Even in the University, little discussion and debate is invited. Thus independent inquiry and intellectual curiosity tend to be discouraged, and analytical ability is not sufficiently developed through discussion.

Any fundamental reform in both the curriculum and the methods of teaching will probably have to be effected largely through the teachers' training colleges. The mission can point to these problems but it is not competent to suggest how they might best be solved. It can only recom-

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871 mend that they be studied, perhaps in collaboration with experts supplied by UNESCO.

In one respect this problem has already received growing recognition in Syria. Since 1949, for example, the Ministry of Education has established 111 special rural elementary schools in various parts of the country. In the fourth and fifth grades of such schools, pupils receive some instruction in the basic principles and techniques of agriculture. Each school has a garden in which children can apply their knowledge. Specially trained instructors have been supplied by the Ministry of Education. While the mission had no opportunity to appraise these schools, it considers that they represent a commendable effort to relate education to the problems of rural life. In principle it would seem desirable to establish more schools of this type as educational facilities are expanded.

874 *Vocational Education*[22]

Vocational education has been comparatively neglected, even though the need for sound practical training in commerce, banking, industry and agriculture has greatly increased. Aside from the agricultural schools, the government operates six vocational schools: two technical schools of intermediate and secondary grade in Damascus and Aleppo; two intermediate technical schools at Hama and Deir ez Zor; and two secondary commercial schools in Damascus and Aleppo. In these and two private institutions, 1,676 students were enrolled in the year 1952-53. The government recently started, on an experimental basis, three apprenticeship schools designed to provide three years of purely vocational training to elementary school graduates. Two of these have been established, respectively for boys and for girls, in Damascus, and the third, for boys, in Aleppo.

Since the mission has dealt with agricultural schools elsewhere, the discussion here will be confined to other vocational schools. In general the vocational school system suffers from inadequate facilities and equipment, a lack of sufficiently trained teachers, and a failure to adapt the training and instruction to the requirements of industry and commerce. There is a tendency to look down on vocational education. Generally only those who for one reason or another cannot attend the regular schools turn to vocational institutions. At the same time the business community takes almost

[22] See Annex I, p. 459.

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873 program off to a good start the services of an expert or a small mission should be requested from UNESCO which has accumulated considerable experience in techniques of fundamental education and which was active in Syria during 1952 and 1953 in the field of vocational training.

Higher Education

Higher education has made substantial progress. The Syrian University, which started in 1919 with schools of medicine and law, now includes also faculties of letters and of sciences, schools of pharmacy, dentistry and engineering and a Higher Teachers' Training College. In 1952-53 the University had 2,580 students. In Aleppo a school of engineering has also been established. Yet a further expansion and improvement of facilities will undoubtedly be necessary since the development program will sharply increase the demand for well-trained teachers, doctors, engineers, civil servants and other qualified personnel. The University will need more teachers, equipment, laboratories and libraries. Although many Syrians will inevitably have to go abroad for special types of training, Syria should be able gradually to provide broader opportunities for higher education at home. The mission suggests that the government appoint a special committee to draw up recommendations for improving and expanding the University in line with the requirements of the economic development program that might be adopted. Such recommendations will undoubtedly entail larger expenditures on higher education, which the mission has taken into account.

458 871 *School Building*

In recent years Syria has apparently been spending about £S 2.5 million annually on new schools. Of this amount, approximately £S 1.4 million has come from municipal or local funds. We do not think that the government should spend, on the average, more than this for school building over the next six years. More could be achieved with such an expenditure, however, by economizing on the cost of construction and requiring [346] more local self-help. Secondary schools built by the Ministry of Public Works, for example, have been excessively expensive owing to their monumental character, the use of costly building materials such as carved stone and other features of a luxury nature. The past cost of £S 150-200 per

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square meter could probably be reduced to £S 80 with simpler construction and the use of less costly local materials. More could also be achieved with central government funds allocated to school building if their availability were conditioned on a larger contribution by municipalities. The latter should be expected to provide the land and half the cost of construction either in cash or labor.

In the program priority should be given to (1) the construction and expansion of vocational schools, (2) the building of experimental multipurpose schools which can provide facilities not only for regular education, but also for adult and vocational training and for community activities, and (3) the needs of municipalities which demonstrate their desire for educational facilities by a willingness to contribute substantially to their construction. The construction of additional regular schools might well be preceded by a survey of the distribution of existing schools in relation to needs. Some parts of the country are now much better provided with schools than others.

Expenditures on Education[33]

The program outlined above would entail an increase in government expenditures on education from an estimated annual level of about £S 36.5 million in 1953 and 1954 to an average of a little over £S 45 million in the period 1955-60. The breakdown of the anticipated outlays over the six-year period would be as follows (in millions of Syrian pounds):

	Total	Average annual
General education[a]	220.50	36.75
Vocational education[b]	3.25	0.54
Fundamental (adult) education	0.50	0.08
Higher education	37.53	6.25
School construction and equipment[c]	10.00	1.67
Total	271.78	45.29

[a] Including primary and secondary education.
[b] Additional expenditures only. Continuing expenditures at past levels are included under "General education."
[c] Excluding local contributions.

[33] See Annex I, p. 461.

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desirable that a modern abattoir be built in a more suitable location; the present problem of drainage disposal would alone warrant this measure. There should be no difficulty about the provision of capital for such a project, since the municipal authority can recoup its expenditures by the collection of fees.

232. The present budget of £S 188,000[8] for personnel and equipment bears no relation to the value of Syrian livestock or to preventable losses. For more effective disease control the mission has recommended that an additional £S 1.2 million be made available during the next six years.

IX EDUCATION, RESEARCH AND EXTENSION

Education

Elementary agricultural education. Since 1949 the rural elementary schools have devoted the two final years (fourth and fifth grades) to theoretical and practical instruction in agriculture and hygiene. At present 111 offering this type of instruction, each with a field of five *donums*[9] for practical field training, are distributed through *mohafazats* as follows:

Damascus	37	Dera'a	13
Aleppo	9	Soueida	11
Latakia	11	Deir ez Zor	9
Hama	5	Hassetche	5
Homs	11		

The pupils (9,000 in 1954) learn the basic principles and techniques of agriculture, practicing them in the school gardens.

Clearly this number of schools cannot provide basic rural education for all the children of Syria's 5,500 villages. Apart from the need to build more schools and enlarge existing ones, a way must be found to train additional agricultural teachers; the teacher training and secondary agricultural schools in Dera'a and Kharabo do not turn out sufficient numbers.

The mission therefore makes the following recommendations:

[8] £S 50,000 for laborers at the Damascus veterinary research center and in the provinces; £S 40,000 for purchase of animals and feed; £S 98,000 for technical requirements (£S 20,000 for the Damascus laboratory; £S 58,000 for the preparation of vaccines and biologics material; and £S 20,000 for medicines in respect of the treatment of parasitical diseases).

[9] A donum = 0.1 hectare.

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1. A number of village school teachers should be given an intensive one-year course in agriculture.

2. Agricultural courses could be profitably substituted for some of the less essential subjects in the rural curricula, as teachers become available.

3. Night classes in agricultural education should be established in the rural elementary schools.

4. Rural elementary school pupils should be encouraged to organize societies to continue their activities outside school and school gardens.

5. Forest farm crops should be included in school gardens, and tree planting should be encouraged on national holidays. Each pupil could be responsible for a tree planted during his school training.

Secondary agricultural education. There is one agricultural vocational school in each of the provinces of Damascus, Homs, Aleppo, Latakia and Euphrates but of these four are intermediate schools and only the one at Kharabo (near Damascus) can be classified as a fully-rated secondary school. About 500 students are enrolled in all five schools. Some of the graduates subsequently engage in farming; the great majority apparently become government employees in the agricultural or in other services.

In the future these schools will be called upon to meet the growing personnel requirements of the government's agricultural, livestock, veterinary and forestry services. At Kharabo particularly, future technicians should be trained to assist in research and extension work. The present four-year curriculum includes all the elements necessary for a general understanding of today's agriculture and its future development, but students should be given an opportunity to specialize, at least during the third and fourth years, in such subjects as rural credit, crop production, livestock and animal husbandry, mechanization and techniques of industrial utilization of agricultural products, e.g., dairy products, fruit preservation, vegetable and meat marketing, tobacco curing, vegetable oil production, meat processing and curing, and the tanning of skins and hides. Better still, two or even three years of training should be added to give the students three or four years of specialization and bring them ultimately to the junior college level.

In the mission's opinion, the curricula of all agricultural schools emphasize theoretical studies too much and practical training too little. Effective farm managers and extension agents must be willing and able to demonstrate with their hands what should be done on the farm. To obtain the respect of the peasants they must be willing to get their hands dirty

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governmental, representing 8.7% and 2.2%, respectively, of total investment in settlements. Municipal investment is directed to water supply,[1] roads, power plants and distribution networks and sewerage facilities, in that order; very little goes for housing. Government investment is primarily in buildings, chiefly for education and public health purposes.

The mission has assumed, in preparing its proposed program for settlements and social services, that the estimated 1954 population of 3.65 million will increase over the next five years at a rate of only 1.5% annually, rather than the 2% rate of recent years. If the program is to be properly adjusted to Syria's needs, however, a population census and an improvement in the collection and organization of vital statistics are urgently needed. Better public health conditions, economic development, opening of new areas and new lines of transport and communications, changes in social patterns—all will bring about major changes in size and distribution of the population over the next few years. Any policy developed for the settlements should be planned with an eye not only to the immediate future but also to the longer term economic, social and cultural development of the country.

II EDUCATION

A PROGRESS TO DATE

For centuries, and especially during the years of foreign occupation, the only formal educational facilities were the Koranic schools, which concentrated on religious teaching. A decline in the number of these schools began about 150 years ago, and with it a gradual change in their curriculum; today about one-third of the time is devoted to religion. Meanwhile the number and significance of state primary schools has been increasing. In these, during the French occupation, the pattern of education was influenced by traditional French systems.

Since independence, Syria has started to develop its education at a faster rate and to give it a Syro-Arabic pattern. The effort of these few years and the success achieved is impressive. The budget of the Ministry of Education rose from almost £S 17 million in 1946 to £S 36.8 million in 1953, and its share of the total budget increased from 13.5% to 17.7% (in 1923 it had been only 9.1% and in 1931 9.8%). Between 1946 and 1953 the

[1] Water supplies in Damascus and Aleppo, however, are financed by government funds.

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871 number of primary, intermediate and secondary schools more than doubled.

871 The last five years alone have seen 939 new schools[2] established—an increase of 64% over the previously existing schools and an average increase of 11% per annum. Greatest gains occurred in the primary schools, the number of which rose by 81% or 11.4% per year. The number of children attending primary schools rose from about 150,000 in 1945-46 to 311,000 in 1952-53. Enrollment in intermediate and secondary schools increased even more rapidly—from 12,661 to 47,670. These advances, as well as those in the fields of technical education, teacher-training and higher education, are shown in Table 1.

872 *Primary Education*

In spite of the very large effort of the last few years, the remaining problems are enormous. According to the best available estimates, no more than 30-40% of the population is literate. It is customarily reckoned that, in a population similar in structure to Syria's, the number of children in every year of age from the 6th to the 12th is approximately equal to 2.6% of the total population. Six to eleven being the primary school age in Syria, there would be on this basis 546,000 children ($6 \times 2.6\% = 15.6\%$ of the 1952 population) of primary school age. Actually only 311,033, or presumably 56% of the eligibles, are in school.

The ratio is not the same for boys and girls. Assuming that the school-age population is divided equally between boys and girls—i.e., that there are 273,000 of each sex—then 18% of the boys and 68% of the girls do not attend school (the attendance figures are 222,779 and 88,254, respectively). Furthermore, many children do not remain in school long enough to receive a school certificate. The number who do finish has been increasing rapidly (from 624 in 1928, to 2,993 in 1940, 6,690 in 1946 and 19,850 in 1952) but it is still much lower than it should be.

There is one primary school for every 1,400 persons in Syria, with an average of 128 pupils and 3.6 teachers. Although only 13% of all primary schools are private schools, these have 18% of all primary school pupils and over 23% of the primary school teachers. The provinces of Damascus and Aleppo have the largest number of private schools; the Euphrates, Djebel Druze and Hauran have the fewest.

[2] Not new buildings, but new schools, most of which occupy rented buildings.

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TABLE 1 Recent Educational Progress in Syria

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	1945–46	1950–51	1952–53
Budget of Ministry of Education[a]	16,967[b]	24,266[c]	36,804[d]
Percent of total ordinary budget	13.5	14.6	17.7
Primary education			
Number of schools	1,080	1,794	2,399
Government	737	1,472	2,064
Private	343	322	335
Number of pupils	150,134	261,862	311,033
Government	99,703	206,343	249,399
Private	50,431	55,519	61,634
Number of graduates	6,690	18,104	26,342
Intermediate and secondary education			
Number of schools	73	135	181
Government	28	47	57
Private	45	88	124
Number of pupils	12,661	34,874	47,670
Government	8,276	22,269	27,144
Private	4,385	12,595	20,526
Number of intermediate school graduates	1,039	3,630	4,610
Number of secondary school graduates	1,155	1,243	1,700
Technical schools			
Number of schools	7	15	8[e]
Government	5	11	6
Private	2	4	2
Number of pupils	916	2,277	1,676
Government	881	2,105	1,567
Private	35	172	109
Teacher training			
Number of schools	4	5	8
Number of students	388	955	1,255
Higher education			
Number of students	1,058	2,470	2,598

[a] In thousands of Syrian pounds.
[b] 1946 budget.
[c] Two-thirds of the 18-months budget ended June 30, 1951.
[d] 1953 budget.
[e] Excluding agricultural schools.

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Assuming an equal percentage of school age children in the different districts, it appears that the regional distribution of primary schools is very unbalanced. Thus the average number of primary school pupils is 91

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Investment in Educational Facilities

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For many centuries only a few school buildings or libraries were built in Syria, and those mainly for the Koranic schools. During the past years, particularly since the war, an effort has been made to provide enough school buildings, but only a small part of the requirements has been met. Although a special tax for school construction was levied by the government for the municipalities, it has not yielded enough for the purpose. Today most schools operate in rented structures which do not meet the physical requirements of a school building.

According to figures of the Ministry of Education, 416 school buildings were built between 1949 and 1954. These were mostly secondary schools, half of them in the Damascus and Aleppo mohafazats. The Ministry estimates the expenditure for these buildings at £S 8.28 million, averaging around £S 20,000 as the cost of each school of two to five classrooms.

The schools suffer from a lack of the appropriate type of furniture, equipment, books and other facilities such as projectors, slides, radios, etc. The fact that most of this equipment must be imported is largely responsible for its shortage, although the furniture and some other items can in fact be produced locally.

B THE SIX-YEAR PROGRAM IN EDUCATION

Our estimates of the cost of the education program are set out in Table 2.

The item for development of primary and secondary education assumes an average annual increase in attendance of 6%, the continuation of the present ratio between primary and secondary education, the same type of education, the same ratio of government to private schools, and no increase in teachers' salaries.

With respect to vocational training we have assumed an increase in attendance at existing and new schools from 1,676 in 1952-53 to 3,500 by 1960-61. This would necessitate a rise of £S 2.226 million in the operating expenditures of such schools over the six-year period. In addition, about £S 900,000 would be needed to cover the cost of a foreign expert (£S 50,000 a year) and of operating the first school to be used as a training center for teachers (£S 100,000 a year). For the operation of

14:International Bank S-5 (1954) 1955 MD1 Syria MD1

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TABLE 2 Proposed Six-Year Program for Education

(Thousand £S)

Purpose of expenditure	Total
1. General program financed by the Ministry of Education—total budget covering primary and secondary education	220,200
2. Additional professional education—operation	2,226
3. Vocational education, foreign expert and training of teachers	900
4. Night schools	125
5. Fundamental education—regular program	99
6. Foreign expert and training program	400
7. Higher education and cultural institutions*	37,526
8. Total for operation	261,776
9. Construction of new schools	7,500
10. Equipment, etc.	2,500
11. Total government expenditure	271,776
12. Investment	10,000
13. Other expenses	261,776
14. Municipal expenditure for school buildings in addition to (9)	7,500
15. Total investment, public sector	17,500
16. Total program, public sector	269,276

* Excluding Department of Antiquities.

vocational night schools it is estimated that every student will cost £S 50 per year; the cost of this program is estimated at £S 5,000 for the first year, rising to £S 30,000 in the sixth year.

The cost of fundamental education has been reckoned at £S 3,000 per operating center annually. To this amount must be added the cost of a foreign expert and teacher-training, for which we have allowed £S 80,000 a year.

For higher education we have made provision for a modest increase in yearly allocations, pending development of future plans. A new type of all-purpose school building must be developed: one which will serve during the day for primary or secondary education, and in the evenings for professional and fundamental schools. We also propose that such buildings might be adapted to serve other community purposes as well.

If the school construction proceeds at the same rate as heretofore, and if the mission's recommendations respecting their construction, set forth in the Main Report, are adopted, five times more schoolrooms for primary

14:International Bank S-5 (1954)1955 MD1 Syria MD1

or secondary education can be built. An expenditure of £S 3 million a year would permit construction of 500 classrooms a year or about 100 new schools, without auditorium and other facilities which can be built later. At such a rate, the country's estimated future requirement of about 4,000 schools (assuming that there are already 1,000) would be fulfilled in about 30 years. Meanwhile a considerable number of schools will undoubtedly have to continue in rented buildings.

The opening of new schools will have to be carefully planned in the light of the geographic distribution of existing facilities, conditions of overcrowding, the demand for schooling as influenced by economic factors, the distance of school-age children from existing schools and the availability of teachers. Now that a considerable portion of school-age children are in fact going to school, the location of new schools must be given more thought in order to ensure that they will meet a real need.

Thought should be given to standardization of desks and equipment and for their manufacture in Syria. There are also future possibilities for local production of some other items now imported, such as slides, maps, etc.

Finally, we recommend a reorganization of the Ministry of Education. In addition to a branch of general services with sections for planning, building, inspection, etc., there may be merit in creating five other branches, to correspond to the five major aspects of the educational program: primary education, secondary education, vocational education, fundamental education and higher education.

III PUBLIC HEALTH

Hospitals and Dispensaries

The country's 24 public and 37 private hospitals have, as of the end of 1954, a total of 4,094 beds. This means only 1.19 beds[8] for over 1,000 inhabitants, as compared with 5 per 1,000 in England, the U. S. and New Zealand or the 15 per 1,000 which some authorities consider optimum for a really healthy population. Only 1,880 of the beds, or 0.56 per 1,000 inhabitants, are in general public hospitals.

[8] In this and subsequent comparisons the number of beds per 1,000 inhabitants has been calculated on the basis of the 1952 population.

15: Khadduri S-4 (no date) 1951 MD1 Syria MD1

642 with public welfare." All subsoil minerals, solid or liquid, are
423 declared the property of the State; and the State, in the general interest, is permitted to expropriate private property in accordance with a law providing for just compensation. But Article 23 ensures that no "general confiscation" shall be permitted.

The Constitution provides in like manner the way of utilizing the land. It stipulates that land "shall be cultivated and not neglected"; and that should it be left unexploited within a certain period to be specified by law, the right of usufruct is alienated. The Constitution provides, likewise, that "a maximum limit for land ownership shall be prescribed by law," and that small and medium ownership is to be encouraged: "The State shall distribute State lands to peasants to whom land is not available sufficient to their living, against small rents to be repaid in installments." (Article 22.)[22]

642 Labor is regarded as "the most basic factor in social life," and
659 is "the right of all citizens." "The State shall provide work to citizens and shall guarantee it by directing and promoting the national economy." (Article 26.) The State undertakes to protect labor and provide legislation for the regulation of wages, hours of labor, allowances, and the improvement of social and health conditions. Trade unions are permitted to be formed within the limits of the law. Forced labor is prohibited except by law aimed at certain specific social and constructional services, and in case of war and emergencies.

642 Education is declared a right of every citizen. Elementary
871 education is compulsory and free in all Government schools. Secondary and professional education, though not compulsory, is also free in all Government schools. "The State shall give priority in the budget for the spread and expansion of elementary, rural, and professional education." The aim of education is defined as "the creation of a generation strong in body and mind, full of faith in God, endowed with moral virtues, proud in the

425 [22] On February 15, 1951, the Minister of Agriculture announced a plan for the distribution of 164,000 dunams (app. 41,500 acres) of State land in the Jazirah area among 554 Bedouin families of the Shammar Zor tribe. Each family will receive 300 dunams (75 acres), and each peasant, after paying the State LS 2.5 annually for 3 years, will own his share of the land. The State land is to be distributed among several villages, each village to receive 20,000 dunams (5,000 acres).

15: Khaddurl S-4 (no date) 1951 MDl Syria MDl

Arab heritages, equipped with knowledge, aware of its duties and obligations, working for the general welfare, imbued with the spirit of collaboration and fraternity among all citizens." (Article 28.) To achieve these ends the State undertakes to supervise all educational institutions in the country and to formulate programs to be applied in the various stages of training. The State alone has the right to grant and to standardize school certificates. Further, a Board of Education is to be set up to formulate educational policy and plans, the composition and functions of which are to be defined by law.

Military service is compulsory, the justification being that the defense of the country is a "sacred duty" and that the Army is the guardian of the Fatherland. The family is the basis of society and is to be protected by the State. The State protects and encourages marriage and endeavors to remove the material and social obstacles which hinder it.

The transitional provisions of the Constitution specify that within ten years from its coming into force illiteracy must be eliminated from the country. Another provision relates to the formulation of a plan for the gradual settlement of the tribes.

Finally, the Constitution stipulates that no amendment is to be made for two years. Thereafter the Constitution may be amended either by a proposal from the President with the approval of the Cabinet and Parliament if one-third of its members submit an application to this effect. Parliament will then consider the proposed amendment; if approved by an absolute majority, it is considered approved as a motion. If it is rejected, the rejection is final and no application for the amendment of the same article can be submitted again for one year. Six months after the adoption of a motion in favor of amendment, Parliament can begin to discuss the proposed alteration. A two-thirds majority is required for approval.

APPRAISAL

The Syrian Constitution of 1950 clearly reflects the influence of both the new European constitutions and the recent course of Arab nationalism. The socialistic trends reflect a realization of the need of rebuilding the social-economic system, which had

EDUCATION

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نسبة موازنة المعارف الى الموازنة العامة ، ١٩٢٢ – ١٩٥٣

RATIO OF THE EDUCATION BUDGET TO THE GENERAL BUDGET, 1922 — 1953

Table No. 1

جدول رقم ١

Year	الموازنة العامة بالليرات السورية General Budget L.S.	موازنة المعارف بالليرات السورية Education Budget L.S.	النسبة المئوية Ratio per cent	السنة
1922	1,692,673	177,916	10.76	١٩٢٢
1924	4,308,717	364,020	8.67	١٩٢٤
1925	5,641,140	441,272	7.83	١٩٢٥
1926	5,041,055	443,822	8.36	١٩٢٦
1927	1,598,636	136,959	8.56	١٩٢٧
1928	2,343,008	194,443	8.32	١٩٢٨
1929	11,320,513	894,141	8.76	١٩٢٩
1930	8,449,086	1,004,699	11.37	١٩٣٠
1931	10,108,744	1,088,289	10.36	١٩٣١
1932	8,502,687	1,048,289	11.08	١٩٣٢
1933	8,464,587	1,077,389	12.72	١٩٣٣
1934	6,902,130	948,297	13.09	١٩٣٤
1935	7,222,385	995,346	13.38	١٩٣٥
1936	7,202,370	964,980	13.08	١٩٣٦
1937	8,303,500	1,238,185	14.71	١٩٣٧
1938	10,247,047	1,613,126	15.74	١٩٣٨
1939	11,282,470	1,842,225	16.33	١٩٣٩
1940	11,884,000	1,911,730	16.09	١٩٤٠
1941	13,008,100	2,272,623	16.71	١٩٤١
1942	22,500,000	3,838,581	17.06	١٩٤٢
1943	36,000,500	6,032,179	16.45	١٩٤٣
1944	69,945,845	7,488,823	10.71	١٩٤٤
1945	103,673,000	9,982,598	9.69	١٩٤٥
1946	139,704,000	14,127,208	10.89	١٩٤٦
1947	125,830,500	16,906,450	13.48	١٩٤٧
1948	137,908,000	23,439,400	16.90	١٩٤٨
1949	130,710,000	22,278,260	17.04	١٩٤٩
1950/51 (1)	218,720,000	38,752,000	17.36	(١) ١٩٥١/١٩٥٠
1951/52 (2)	269,000,000	48,790,000	18.78	(٢) ١٩٥٢/١٩٥١
1953	305,000,000	58,804,000	17.33	١٩٥٣

(1) Period 1.1.50 — 30.6.51
(2) Period 1.7.51 — 31.12.52

(١) للمدة ١٩٥٠/١/١ – ١٩٥١/٦/٣٠
(٢) للمدة ١٩٥١/٧/١ – ١٩٥٢/١٢/٣١

عدد المدارس الرسمية والاهلية والاجنبية ، سنوات ١٩٥٠/١٩٥١ – ١٩٥٢/١٩٥٢

NUMBER OF GOVERNMENT, NATIONAL, AND FOREIGN SCHOOLS 1950/1951 — 1952/1953

Table No. 2

جدول رقم ٢

TYPE OF SCHOOL	1950/1951		١٩٥١/١٩٥٠		1951/1952		١٩٥٢/١٩٥١		1952/1953		١٩٥٣/١٩٥٢		نوع المدارس
	المجموع Total	الذكور Males	الاناث Fem.	مختلطة Mixed	المجموع Total	الذكور Males	الاناث Fem.	مختلطة Mixed	المجموع Total	الذكور Males	الاناث Fem.	مختلطة Mixed	
Elementary Schools													**المدارس الابتدائية**
— Total	1,794	1224	310	160	2184	1635	369	180	2399	1610	394	395	ـ المجموع
— Government	1,472	1305	326	9	1550	1324	213	13	2064	1503	343	218	ـ الرسمية
— National	284	106	43	135	396	96	46	152	308	89	44	165	ـ الاهلية
— Foreign	38	13	10	15	38	13	10	15	27	8	7	12	ـ الاجنبية
Secondary Schools													**مدارس الثوسطة والاعدادية**
— Total	138	77	43	15	164	107	48	9	181	99	57	25	ـ المجموع
— Government	47	27	17	3	57	35	20	2	57	34	20	3	ـ الرسمية
— National	70	43	17	10	80	65	19	5	106	79	27	20	ـ الاهلية
— Foreign	18	7	9	2	18	7	9	2	18	6	10	2	ـ الاجنبية
Technical Schools (1)													**المدارس المهنية (١)**
— Total	15	11	4	—	13	11	2	—	14	12	1	1	ـ المجموع
— Government	11	10	1	—	11	10	1	—	12	11	1	—	ـ الرسمية
— National	3	1	2	—	2	1	1	—	2	1	—	1	ـ الاهلية
— Foreign	1	—	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	ـ الاجنبية
Teachers Training College (Government) (2)	5	3	2	—	10	6	4	—	8	6	2	—	**دار المعلمين(٢) (الرسمية)**

Source : Ministry of Education.

(1) Including Agricultural Schools.

(2) In 1950 the Rural Teachers Training College was merged with the other Training Colleges

المصدر : وزارة المعارف

(١) بما في ذلك المدارس الزراعية

(٢) ابتداء من عام ١٩٥٠ ادخلت دار المعلمين الريفيـة مع دور المعلمين الاخرى

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عدد الطلاب في عموم المدارس الرسمية والأهلية والأجنبية ، ١٩٥٠/١٩٥١ — ١٩٥١/١٩٥٢

NUMBER OF PUPILS IN ALL GOVERNMENT, NATIONAL AND FOREIGN SCHOOLS, YEARS 1950/1951 — 1952/1953

Table No. 3

جدول رقم ٣

TYPE OF SCHOOL	1950 — 1951 ١٩٥١ ـ ١٩٥٠			1951 — 1952 ١٩٥٢ ـ ١٩٥١			1952 — 1953 ١٩٥٣ ـ ١٩٥٢			نوع المدارس
	المجموع Total	ذكور Males	اناث Females	المجموع Total	ذكور Males	اناث Females	المجموع Total	ذكور Males	اناث Females	
Elementary Schools										**المدارس الابتدائية**
— Total	281,862	188,823	73,039	297,185	214,684	82,501	311,083	222,779	88,964	ـ المجموع
— Government	206,343	154,430	51,913	237,775	178,250	59,525	249,399	185,275	64,124	ـ الرسمية
— National	48,804	30,885	17,919	52,270	32,614	19,656	54,856	20,041	34,215	ـ الأهلية
— Foreign	6,715	3,506	3,207	7,140	3,820	3,320	6,778	3,389	3,489	ـ الأجنبية
Secondary Schools										**المدارس الثانوية**
— Total	34,874	26,403	8,471	42,551	32,338	10,213	47,670	36,243	11,427	ـ المجموع
— Government	22,289	16,539	5,730	26,237	19,314	6,923	27,144	19,990	7,154	ـ الرسمية
— National	10,378	8,577	1,801	13,602	11,305	2,297	17,801	14,785	3,016	ـ الأهلية
— Foreign	2,227	1,287	940	2,712	1,719	993	2,725	1,468	1,257	ـ الأجنبية
Technical Schools (*)										**المدارس المهنية (*)**
— Total	2,277	1,945	332	2,310	1,998	312	2,191	1,995	196	ـ المجموع
— Government	2,105	1,885	310	2,146	1,942	204	2,082	1,896	186	ـ الرسمية
— National	92	50	42	64	56	8	109	99	10	ـ الأهلية
— Foreign	80	—	80	—	—	—	—	—	—	ـ الأجنبية
Teachers Training College (Government)	955	643	312	1,233	785	448	1,255	731	524	**دور المعلمين ـ الرسمية**

Source : Ministry of Education.

(*) Including pupils in Agricultural Schools

المصدر : وزارة المعارف

(*) اضيف اليهم طلاب المدارس الزراعية

التربية والتعليم

عدد الحاصلين على الشهادات العلمية السورية منذ احداثها حتى نهاية عام ١٩٥٢

THE ACCUMULATIVE NUMBER OF PERSONS HOLDING SYRIAN CERTIFICATES SINCE THEIR ISSUE UP TO THE END OF 1952

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Table No. 10

جدول رقم ١٠

Certificate	مجموع Total	الذكور Males	الاناث Females	الشهادات
Elementary School Certificate	124,601	97,249	27,352	شهادة الدراسة الابتدائية
The « Brevet » Certificate	18,962	14,964	3,998	» » المتوسطة
The Secondary School Certificate	8,964	7,395	1,569	» » الثانوية
The Elementary Agricultural School Certificate	111	111	—	» » الابتدائية الزراعية
The «2Brevet » Agricultural School Certificate	127	127	—	» » المتوسطة الزراعية
The Secondary Agricultural School Certificate	230	230	—	» » الثانوية الزراعية
The « Brevet » Trade School Certificate	797	583	214	» » المتوسطة الصناعية
The Secondary Trade School Certificate	82	82	—	» » الثانوية الصناعية
The «2Brevet » Commercial Certificate	315	315	—	» » المتوسطة التجارية
The Secondary Commercial School Certificate	144	144	—	» » الثانوية التجارية
The Shar'ia School Certificate	116	116	—	» » الشرعية
The Elementary School Teaching Certificate	1,718	1,065	563	» اهلية التعليم الابتدائي
Licence in Law	2,308	2,219	89	» الاجازة في الحقوق
Diploma in Finance and Economics	12	10	2	» الاختصاص في العلوم المالية والاقتصادية
Diploma in Law (Special)	14	13	1	» الاختصاص في الحقوق الخاصة
Diploma in Law (General)	20	15	5	» » في الحقوق العامة
Doctor in Medicine	597	587	10	شهادة دكتور في الطب
Doctor in Dentistry	168	167	1	» » في طب الاسنان
Licence in Pharmacy	231	223	8	» الاجازة في الصيدلة
Diploma in Nursery	72	—	72	» في فن التمريض
Diploma in Midwifery	238	—	238	» » القبالة
Licence in Engineering	32	32	—	» الاجازة في الهندسة
Licence of Natural Sciences	12	9	3	» » العلوم الطبيعية
Licence in Mathematics	31	25	6	» » العلوم الرياضية
Licence in Physics	33	22	11	» » العلوم الفيزيائية
Certificate in Physics, Chemistry and Biology (P.C.B.)	146	131	15	» العلوم الفيزيائية والكيميائية والحيوية
Licence in Arabic Literature	58	40	18	» الاجازة في آداب اللغة العربية
Licence in Philosophy	39	23	16	» » » الفلسفة
Licence in History	79	50	29	» » » التاريخ
Licence in Geography	22	13	9	» » » الجغرافيا
Teacher's Diploma (H.T.T.C.)	260	192	68	» دبلوم في التربية من كلية التربية
Secondary Teachers' Certificate	270	199	71	» اهلية التعليم الثانوي

Source : Ministry of Education, The Syrian University, Ministry of Agriculture.

المصدر : وزارة المعارف
الجامعة السورية — وزارة الزراعة

عدد الحاصلين على الشهادات العلمية السورية خلال عام ١٩٥٣

NUMBER OF PERSONS ACQUIRING THE SYRIAN EDUCATIONAL CERTIFICATES DURING 953

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Table No. 15

جدول رقم ١٥

Certificate	المجموع Total	الذكور Males	الاناث Fem.	الشهادات
Elementary School Certificate	26,342	20,556	5,786	شهادة الدراسة الابتدائية
The « Brevet » Certificate	4,610	3,565	1,045	« « المتوسطة
The Secondary School Certificate	1,700	1,383	317	« « الثانوية
The Elementary Agricultural School Certificate	...	...	...	« « الابتدائية الزراعية
The « Brevet » Agricultural School Certificate	62	62	—	« « المتوسطة الزراعية
The Secondary Agricultural School Certificate	14	14	—	« « الثانوية الزراعية
The « Brevet » Trade School Certificate	140	124	22	« « المتوسطة الصناعية
The Secondary Trade School Certificate	55	55	—	« « الثانوية الصناعية
The « Brevet » Commercial School Certificate	22	22	—	« « المتوسطة التجارية
The Secondary Commercial School Certificate	9	9	—	« « الثانوية التجارية
The Shari'a School Certificate	7	7	—	« « الثانوية الشرعية
The Elementary School Teaching Certificate	432	258	174	« اهلية التعليم الابتدائي
Licence in Law	104	100	4	« الاجازة في الحقوق
Diploma in Finance and Economics	23	23	—	« الاختصاص في العلوم المالية والاقتصادية
Diploma in Law (Special)	26	26	—	« الاختصاص في الحقوق الخاصة
Diploma in Law (General)	55	51	4	« « في الحقوق العامة
Doctor in Medicine	53	47	6	شهادة دكتور في الطب
Doctor in Dentistry	7	6	1	« « في طب الاسنان
Licence in Pharmacy	13	10	3	« الاجازة في الصيدلة
Diploma in Nursery	13	—	13	« في فن التمريض
Diploma in Midwifery	22	—	22	« « القبالة
Licence in Engineering	18	16	2	« الاجازة في الهندسة
Licence in Natural Sciences	8	6	2	« « « العلوم الطبيعية
Licence in Mathematics	7	4	3	« « « العلوم الرياضية
Licence in Physics	9	8	1	« « « العلوم الفيزيائية
Certificate in Physics, Chemistry and Biology (P.C.B.)	92	79	13	« العلوم الفيزيائية والكيميائية والحيوية
Licence in Arabic Literature	19	12	7	« الاجازة في آداب اللغة العربية
Licence in Philosophy	17	9	8	« « « الفلسفة
Licence in History	10	8	2	« « « التاريخ
Licence in Geography	12	11	1	« « « الجغرافيا
Teacher's Diploma (H.T.T.C.)	42	33	9	« دبلوم في التربية من كلية التربية
Secondary Teachers' Certificate (old system)	25	17	8	« « اهلية التعليم الثانوي نظام قديم
Secondary Teachers' Certificate (Specialising Class.)	9	4	5	صف الاختصاص

Source : Ministry of Education — The Syrian University — Ministry of Agriculture

المصدر : وزارة المعارف
الجامعة السورية — وزارة الزراعة

3:Royal Institute of International Affairs U-4 (no date)1954 M1 Middle East
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In neither country is there an officer caste or a strong military tradition, though the present Syrian regime is trying to create one.

S L 565 463 511

Social Survey

The ruling class in both countries is drawn from wealthy families; titles do not exist and the 'old' rich families, whose position and wealth come from land, mix freely with the 'new' rich families, whose money comes from commerce. There is no stigma in engaging in trade and even members of the upper class are merchants. A middle class of functionaries and employees has been growing up since 1948 in the three main cities. Their flats, between the splendour of the rich quarter and the huddle of the *suq*, are being built in quantities and their new, middle-class way of life is based on European standards. The mass of the people are artisans and labourers. The urban artisan approaches the middle class and the rural labourer approaches the hard life of the nomad; for the farm labourer the standard of living is generally low.

S L 204 656

The Press

The press of both countries is important but no one paper or group of papers has established an ascendancy. Damascus had at one time over twenty daily papers none of which could guarantee a circulation of over 3,000. The same state of affairs holds true in Beirut where most parties issue Arabic and in some cases French papers; there are also Armenian newspapers and one English daily.

Individual Lebanese have founded papers and *Le Commerce du Levant*, published in Beirut, has a standing comparable with *La Bourse Egyptienne*. In both countries press censorship has frequently closed down a paper only for it to re-emerge under another name, and in Syria the military dictatorship has reduced the press to a mere mouthpiece of official propaganda.

S L 871 [212] 658

Education

In both countries there are primary and secondary schools, and the number of schools and students increase each year. Primary education is compulsory, and although reliable figures of literacy are not available,[1] it may be assumed that the percentage of illiterates is decreasing in both countries, but is higher in Syria than in Lebanon. In Syria, most of the schools are run by the state and of the private schools (which are

[1] An estimate for Syria for 1947 given in UN, Dept. of Social Affairs, *Preliminary Report on the World Social Situation*, 1952, was 40–50 per cent.

3:Royal Institute of International Affairs U-4 (no date)1954 M1 Middle East
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mainly Christian) those run by foreigners are now finding it difficult to disarm the suspicions of the Government. In Lebanon, there are almost as many private as state schools and the foreign schools still work without difficulty. There are higher schools for teachers and for agriculture and engineering in Syria and for agriculture in Lebanon, but it is usual for a student to pass from a secondary school directly to a university. The following table shows the various types of schools and number of students.

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Type	Lebanon, 1951		Syria, 1951–2	
	Schools	*Students*	*Schools*	*Students*
State:				
Primary	977	83,252	1,850	237,775
Secondary	..	..	57	26,237
Technical	30	2,381	11	2,146
Teachers	2	165	10	1,233
Reformatory	1	106	—	—
Private	601	84,788	387	65,936
Foreign	149	41,402	56	9,852
Total:	1,760	212,094	2,371	343,179

.. = not available.

(Sources: *Statistical Abstract of Syria, 1951–2*, Damascus, 1952; *Statesman's Year-Book*, 1953).

The American University of Beirut is non-sectarian and has students from all over the Middle East. It encourages the use of Arabic as well as English, and its most renowned faculties are those of medicine and social sciences. The University of St Joseph in Beirut is run by the Society of Jesus. Attached to this university are schools of medicine, law, and theology, subsidized by the French Government and administered by the Society, in which teaching is carried on in the French language. A National University has recently been started by the Lebanese Government. The Syrian National University in Damascus teaches in Arabic and its most important faculties are those of law and medicine. A separate body for the study of the Arabic language is the Arab Academy of Damascus.

Health

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Malaria and amoebic dysentery are endemic and, though efforts are being made to drain breeding-grounds, preventive medicine is only in a rudimentary stage. Good hospitals exist in the cities and more are under construction; qualified doctors practise in all the towns, but in the villages there is still a lack

20: Hourani S-5 (1945) 1947 M1 Middle East
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563 equally to Syria. The Christians still form a social unit, or rather a series of inter-connected social units, the relations of which with the Moslem community are largely formal. This is especially true of the older generation brought up under the Ottoman regime. The introduction of freer social customs from the West, the spread of education and the growth of the idea of the nation between them are helping to make the younger generation less conscious of its confessional ties, and may in the end succeed in breaking down the barriers between the sects.

Western ideas and forces have so far made little impression outside the few large towns. In the smaller towns and the villages, traditions still rule unchecked, and the old social exclusiveness of the sects still persists. But on the other hand the very nature of life in small towns or villages tends to the assimilation of the social characteristics of the minorities to those of the majority. Moreover, it encourages economic interdependence and co-operation. Economically, the Christian do not differ much from the Moslem peasants. It is only in the large towns that the economic structure of the Christian communities diverges from that of the majority. The educational progress of the 563 871 Christians has been swifter than that of the Moslems, and has diverged from it in some ways. In 1938 the Christians accounted for about 32 per cent of the total school population, although they form only 19 per cent of the population as a whole. They account for an even larger proportion of the pupils of secondary schools; and although only 20 per cent of the students of the University in Damascus are Christians, many others are studying at the Universities in Beirut, or in Europe.

It must be noticed also that 32 per cent of the Christian students attend foreign schools, 61 per cent private schools and only 7 per cent official ones. Almost all the foreign schools are controlled by Christian missions, although some are owned by the French 'Mission Laïque', and about 170 out of the 294 private schools are controlled by Christian communities. Thus, the Christians are not only obtaining more education than the Moslems, but 563 it is education of a different sort. Individual Christians play an 668 important part in the national movement, in Syria as elsewhere. The most prominent of them in recent times have been the brothers Faris and Faiz al-Khuri, the former of whom was President of the Chamber of Deputies from 1936 to 1939 and again in 1943–4, and became Prime Minister in 1944.

their animals. Malaria is prevalent. The majority are heavily indebted. The tenants on the irrigated land, with an average holding of 18 acres, are also poor but less heavily indebted, because they can depend on a more regular income.

The poorest class are the landless labourers whose income in money and kind amounts to 530 Syrian pounds a year (1944) (£10 at 1939 prices).[1] This is a starvation wage, which means that they can only eat enough in harvest time, and in winter must subsist on maize, bread, and grass.

The poverty on this estate is therefore a result of the low productivity and the low proportion of the area under cultivation. One way of increasing the area cultivated would be by the use of machinery. Tractors were introduced some fifteen years ago, but proved too costly in relation to the low prices of Syrian grain; owing to lack of skilled drivers and proper maintenance they fell into disrepair. During the late war, however, as the price of grain rose, tractors were again used by some tenants who hired them from neighbouring estates.

Another way of raising production would be to increase irrigation since there is sufficient water to supply much more land. In this respect the estate is typical of the whole Homs–Hama plain, where much of the water which the French authorities have made available by irrigation goes to waste.

On this estate, therefore, the poverty of the cultivators is due to the landowner's failure to increase the productivity of the soil, rather than to his exploitation of the peasants; compared with other estates, this one is socially progressive, since the landowner's family have set up a school and also distribute medicines free of charge.

The second study covers a more intensively cultivated village, Ashrafie, on the borders of the irrigated district of Damascus. Less heavily supplied with water than El Ghuta itself, Ashrafie has sufficient water to irrigate 10 per cent of the total land. The total area is 1:600 hectares or 4,000 acres, of which 2,400 are owned by four estate owners and the rest by peasants. The largest landowner is an absentee, letting his land on a 50 per cent share-tenancy basis; with definite three-year leases (by contrast with the usual custom under which the tenant has no lease).

[1] This is calculated on a rate of 9 Syrian pounds to £1, allowing for a six-fold increase in the Syrian cost of living between 1939 and 1944.

[The estate of Misherfe, near Homs --Analyst]

161 square mile; in the province of Hauran, 80 per square mile; and in the province of Hama, 77 per square mile. In contrast, the population density of Al Jazira, incorporating the potentially fertile plains of the Khabour river basin, was 18 per square
369 mile. The country is about 70 per cent rural,
162 with the inhabitants living in some 5,000 villages. There are 6 principal cities with populations of over 30,000 — Damascus, Aleppo, Homs, Hama, Latakia and Deir ez Zor. Damascus, the capital and a city of commercial and religious significance, had a population of almost 325,100 in 1949. Aleppo, an industrial and trade center, and the largest city in Syria, had a population of about 356,600. It disputes with Damascus the claim of being the oldest city of continued prominence in the world.

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167 In addition to the older refugee communities, as the Armenians, the Assyrians and the Druzes, which have become established minority groups, Syria received an influx in 1948 of about 150,000 Arabs from northern Palestine. Approximately 80,000 located around Damascus; others in Hauran and the northern provinces. Their status and ultimate distribution were still undetermined in 1952, when the number on the roster of the United Nations Relief and Works Agency for Palestine Refugees totaled 84,000. Over one third resided in special camps, but the remainder were living independently in the various towns and villages.

167 During the Ottoman regime, large numbers of Syrians emigrated to the Americas, and to Europe and Africa. Although they probably total almost 60,000, the Syrian colonies abroad are small in comparison with those of the Lebanese, and their influence on the cultural and the economic life of their homeland is proportionately slight.

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185 The educational system has undergone revision since the founding of the republic in 1943, with increased emphasis on its adaptation to the culture and the needs of the
811 people. Elementary education is compul-

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69:Simmons et al G-5 (1941-1951) 1954
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sory, according to law, but barely one half of the children are now registered in schools. Outside of Damascus, the literacy rates probably do not exceed 40 per cent among the men and 10 to 20 per cent among the women. Schools are maintained by the government and by private organizations, both national and foreign. The Syrian University, in Damascus, is one of the leading Arab institutions in the Middle East. It includes faculties of law, science, arts and medicine, with subordinate departments of dentistry, pharmacy and nursing, as well as an advanced school for teacher training. An engineering school is established at Aleppo, and, in 1952, a new school for the training of village teachers, with emphasis on home economics and agriculture, was under construction near Damascus.

Vital Statistics

Due to lack of demographic data among large segments of the population, few valid statistics are available. Theoretically, the registration of births and deaths is compulsory, but in the rural areas, away from centers of population, reporting is incomplete. Government officials estimate that the accuracy of the recorded statistics approximates 90 per cent in the cities, but 30 to 60 per cent in the villages, over one half of which have less than 200 inhabitants. Considering the country as a whole, probably 50 to 80 per cent of the births are recorded and, since certificates are required for burial, a slightly higher percentage of the deaths. According to published statistics for 1948, the birth rate for the entire country was calculated at 19.1 per 1,000 population; the death rate, at 6.5 per 1,000 population. The birth rates ranged from 35.3 in the city of Damascus to 9.0 in the rural province of Al Jazira; the death rates, from 13.2 to 2.3, respectively. Evidence derived from informal surveys in different localities, however, suggests that the true birth rates average 30 to 40 per 1,000 population and the death rates 15 to 30 per 1,000 population.

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